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Diverse behaviors of marine ice sheets in response to temporal variability of the atmospheric and basal conditions

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ABSTRACT. The observed retreat of the grounding line of the present-day ice sheets and the simulated grounding line retreat of ice sheets under changing climate conditions are often interpreted as indications of marine ice-sheet instability, driven by a positive feedback between the ice discharge and conditions at the grounding line. However, the arguments that support this feedback are valid only for steady-state conditions. Here, we assess how unconfined marine ice sheets may behave if atmospheric conditions and basal conditions evolve with time. We find that the behavior of the grounding lines can exhibit a range from unstoppable advance and retreat to irregular oscillation irrespective of the stability of the corresponding steady state configurations obtained with time-invariant conditions. Our results show that numerical simulations with a parameterization of the ice flux through the grounding line used in large-scale ice sheet models produce markedly different results from simulations without the parameterization. Our analysis demonstrates that the grounding line migration can be driven by the temporal variability in the atmospheric and basal conditions and not by marine ice-sheet instability, which assumes unchanging conditions. Instead, the grounding-line advance or retreat is determined by interactions between ice flow, basal processes and environmental conditions throughout the length of a marine ice sheet in addition to the circumstances

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at its grounding line.

1 Introduction

The contributions of marine ice sheets to sea level are controlled by the dynamics of their grounding lines. Typically migration of the grounding lines on bedrock that slopes toward interior of the ice sheet is thought to be caused by marine ice-sheet instability (MISI) —a hypothesis proposed by *Weertman* (1974). According to *Weertman*'s hypothesis, the stability of a steady-state marine ice sheet is determined by the bed slope at the location of the grounding line: if the slope is “retrograde”, *i.e.*, the bed slopes toward the interior, the ice sheet is inherently unstable; if the slope is “prograde”, *i.e.*, the bed slopes away from the interior, the ice sheet is unconditionally stable. As the West Antarctic Ice Sheet, and many parts of the East Antarctic and Greenland ice sheets rest on beds with retrograde slopes, the behavior of their grounding lines is described “unstable” (*e.g.*, *Shepherd et al.*, 2018a) as a corollary of *Weertman*'s result.

The original hypothesis *Weertman* (1974) and its consequent analysis *Schoof* (2007a,b, 2012) define stability as a property of steady states of ice sheets, *i.e.*, all their environmental conditions and internal properties (*e.g.*, basal sliding) do not change in time. While many studies broadened the definition of MISI and term “instability” as any positive feedback between the grounding line retreat and increase of ice flux (or discharge) through the grounding line (*Pattyn and Morlighem*, 2020), they use similar arguments as those first proposed by *Weertman* (1974) and *Schoof* (2007a) for steady states. These arguments have been used to explain the observed retreats of the grounding lines of Antarctic and Greenland ice sheets (*Rignot*, 1998; *Shepherd et al.*, 2018a; *Khan et al.*, 2020). Similarly, the grounding line retreat produced in simulations of the future ice-sheet behavior under projected climate conditions changing in time has also been interpreted as an indication of marine ice-sheet instability (*Cornford et al.*, 2015; *DeConto and Pollard*, 2016).

Recent studies that considered steady-state configurations for laterally confined marine ice sheets (*Gudmundsson et al.*, 2012; *Kowal et al.*, 2016; *Pegler*, 2018; *Haseloff and Sergienko*, 2018; *Reese et al.*, 2018; *Sergienko and Wingham*, 2022; *Sergienko*, 2022a), non-negligible bed topography (*Sergienko and Wingham*, 2022) and the regime of low basal stress (*Sergienko and Wingham*, 2019) have demonstrated that the bed slope alone does not necessarily determine stability of steady-state marine ice sheets, and in particular configurations they can be stable and unstable with their grounding lines located on either prograde or

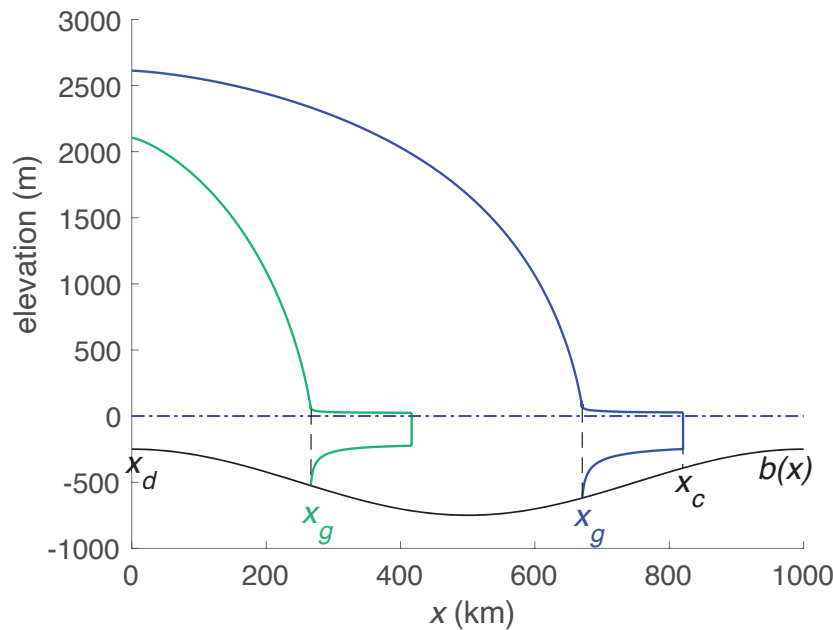


Fig. 1. Ice-sheet configurations: x_d - the ice divide location, x_g - the grounding line location, x_c - the calving front location, $b(x)$ - the bed elevation; sea level lies at zero elevation (dot-dash blue line). The green line indicates a stable steady-state configuration; the blue line indicates an unstable steady-state configuration. The black line indicates bed topography.

56 retrograde beds (Gudmundsson, 2013; Haseloff and Sergienko, 2018; Sergienko and Wingham, 2019, 2022;
 57 Haseloff and Sergienko, 2022). A study by Sergienko and Haseloff (2023) that considered a laterally con-
 58 fined marine ice sheet that experiences temporally variable submarine melting has found that the grounding
 59 line can intermittently advance and retreat as well as retreat in an unstoppable manner, even though a
 60 steady state obtained with time-averaged submarine melt rates is stable.

61 Here we use the same one-dimensional model of an unconfined marine ice sheet resting on a smooth bed
 62 topography which has been used to establish stability conditions of steady-state marine ice sheets (Schoof,
 63 2007a,b, 2012), and subject it to time-evolving environmental conditions with the goal to investigate the
 64 marine ice-sheet response to changing conditions. In the laterally unconfined configuration, the problem
 65 reduces to the grounded part only, with submarine melting having no effects on the grounding line. We
 66 initialise time-variant simulations with two kinds of steady-state configurations (fig. 1) both of which
 67 conform to the MISI hypothesis, *i.e.*, the one shown with a green line, whose grounding line is located on
 68 the prograde slope, is stable when subject to small perturbations from its steady state position; and the
 69 second, shown with a blue line, whose grounding line is located on the retrograde slope, and is unstable
 70 when subject to small perturbations.

71 Our results show that when accumulation rate (external) or basal sliding (internal) conditions change
72 with time, marine ice sheets could persist or disappear irrespective of the stability of the steady states
73 obtained with the time-averaged conditions. We illustrate with time-variant examples that the ice-sheet
74 mass balance is different from that in a steady state; the partitioning between its terms is not obvious, and
75 in consequence the grounding line migration need not result in a sustained advance or retreat on retrograde
76 beds or stable behaviour on prograde beds.

77 Using simplified assumptions of negligible bed slope and accumulation rates in the vicinity of the
78 grounding line, *Schoof* (2007a) has derived an expression for the steady-state ice flux as a function of the
79 ice thickness at the grounding line. Due to its simplicity, this expression is used in a variety of applications
80 (*e.g.*, simplified conceptual models (*Robel et al.*, 2018), analysis of ice-sheet wide observations (*Slater and*
81 *Straneo*, 2022)). It is also used as a parameterization in several large-scale ice sheet models (*e.g.*, *DeConto*
82 *and Pollard*, 2016; *Pattyn*, 2017; *Quiquet et al.*, 2018). However, the expression is a statement that at the
83 grounding line, the internal deformation equals the ice advection, and, as we illustrate, the imbalance of
84 these terms contributes to the rate of grounding line motion. The results of simulations with and without
85 the parameterization of the ice flux at the grounding line are significantly different, demonstrating its
86 unsuitability for time-variant conditions.

87 The manuscript is organized as follows. In section 2 we provide a description of the model and numerical
88 methods. The section 3.1 demonstrates the effects of time variability in the surface accumulation and section
89 3.2 in the sliding conditions. In section 3.3 we examine the performance of the ice-flux parameterization
90 and provide physical interpretations of the results. We give our conclusions in section 4. Readers with less
91 interest in the mathematical and numerical aspects can proceed directly to sections 3-4.

92 **2 Methods**

93 **2.1 Model description**

94 The model is the same as one used to investigate steady-state configurations of marine ice sheets (*Schoof*,
95 2007a,b). Here we provide its brief description. Flow of an unconfined ice stream into an unconfined ice
96 shelf (fig. 1) can be described by vertically integrated momentum balance under assumptions of negligible

97 vertical shear appropriate for ice stream and ice shelf flow (MacAyeal, 1989) that is

$$2 \left(A^{-1/n} h |u_x|^{1/n-1} u_x \right)_x - \tau_b - \rho g h (h + b)_x = 0, \quad x_d \leq x \leq x_g, \quad (1a)$$

$$2 \left(A^{-1/n} h |u_x|^{1/n-1} u_x \right)_x - \rho g' h h_x = 0, \quad x_g \leq x \leq x_c, \quad (1b)$$

98 where $u(x)$ is the depth-averaged ice velocity, $h(x)$ ice thickness, $b(x)$ is bed elevation (negative below
99 sea level and positive above sea level), A is the ice stiffness parameter (assumed to be constant), n is an
100 exponent of Glen's flow law ($n=3$), g is the acceleration due to gravity, τ_b is basal shear, g' is the reduced
101 gravity defined as

$$g' = \delta g, \quad (2)$$

102 where

$$\delta = \frac{\rho_w - \rho}{\rho_w} \quad (3)$$

103 is the buoyancy parameter, ρ and ρ_w are the densities of ice and water, respectively. x_d is the location of
104 the ice divide, x_c is the location of the calving front and x_g is the location of the grounding line. The basal
105 shear is assumed to follow a power-law

$$\tau_b = C |u|^{m-1} u, \quad (4)$$

106 where C is the sliding parameter and $m = 1/n$ is the sliding exponent.

107 The mass balance is

$$h_t + (uh)_x = \begin{cases} \dot{a} & 0 \leq x \leq x_g, \\ \dot{m} & x_g < x \leq x_c, \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

108 where \dot{a} is the net accumulation/ablation rate, usually referred to as the surface mass balance (SMB) of
109 the ice stream, and \dot{m} is the net accumulation and submarine melting rate of the ice shelf.

110 The boundary conditions at the divide x_d and the calving front x_c are

$$(h + b)_x = 0, \quad u = 0, \quad x = x_d, \quad (6a)$$

$$2A^{-1/n}h|u_x|^{1/n-1}u_x = \frac{1}{2}\rho g'h^2, \quad x = x_c. \quad (6b)$$

111 At the grounding line x_g the continuity conditions

$$u_{stream}(x_g) = u_{shelf}(x_g), \quad (7a)$$

$$h_{stream}(x_g) = h_{shelf}(x_g), \quad (7b)$$

$$\tau_{stream}(x_g) = \tau_{shelf}(x_g), \quad (7c)$$

112 (where $\tau = 2A^{-1/n}h|u_x|^{1/n-1}u_x$ is the longitudinal stress) and the flotation condition

$$h(x_g) = -\frac{\rho_w}{\rho_i}b(x_g) \quad (8)$$

113 are satisfied. The fact that the ice is grounded upstream of the grounding line and is floating downstream
114 of it is reflected by two inequalities

$$h(x) \geq -\frac{\rho_w}{\rho}b(x), \quad x_d < x < x_g, \quad (9a)$$

$$h(x) < -\frac{\rho_w}{\rho}b(x), \quad x_g < x < x_c. \quad (9b)$$

115 In circumstances where ice shelves are unconfined, the momentum balance of the ice shelf (1b) can be
116 integrated with the boundary condition at the calving front, x_c , (6b) and the continuity conditions (7),
117 and the problem can be reduced to the ice-stream part only with the boundary conditions at the grounding
118 line - the flotation condition (8) and the stress condition

$$2A^{-1/n}h|u_x|^{1/n-1}u_x = \frac{1}{2}\rho g'h^2, \quad x = x_g(t). \quad (10)$$

119 The rate of the grounding line migration can be obtained by taking the total time derivative of the
120 flotation condition (8) and rearranging terms

$$\dot{x}_g = -\frac{h_t + \frac{b_t}{1-\delta}}{h_x + \frac{b_x}{1-\delta}}, \quad (11)$$

121 where b_t is the rate of change of the bed elevation that can be due to subglacial morphological processes
122 (*e.g.*, erosion or sediment deposition), or due to glacial isostatic adjustment, or due to changes in sea level.

123 Here, we do not take into account these processes and assume $b_t = 0$. Using the mass balance equation,
124 this expression becomes (19).

125 2.2 Numerical implementation

126 We solve numerically the system of equations describing the evolution of the grounded part of the marine ice
127 sheet and its flow. The system includes the momentum, eqn (1a), and the mass, eqn (5), balances with the
128 boundary conditions (6a), (8) and (10), and is solved using the finite-element solver ComsolTM(COMSOL,
129 2023). In all simulations, the grid resolution is spatially variable: it is 200 m through 95% of the length of the
130 domain, and 1 m in the 5% closest to the grounding line position. The initial steady-state configuration is
131 obtained using a minimization procedure based on the Bound Optimization by Quadratic Approximation
132 optimization algorithm (Powell, 2009). The time-variant simulations are performed on domains with a
133 moving boundary, the grounding line. This is done using an arbitrary Lagrangian-Eulerian (ALE) method
134 (Donea *et al.*, 2017). This boundary moves with a prescribed velocity, expression (19).

135 We use the following model setup. The bed topography is described by $b(x) = b_0 + b_a \cos \frac{2\pi x}{L}$, with
136 $b_0 = -500$ m, $b_a = 250$ and $L = 1000$ km, $\dot{a}_{ss} = 0.1$ m yr⁻¹ the sliding law parameters $C_0 = 7.6 \times 10^6$ Pa s^{1/3} m^{-1/3}
137 and m (chosen to be $m = 1/n$), and ice stiffness parameter $A = 1.35 \times 10^{-25}$ Pa⁻³ s⁻¹ (which corresponds to
138 $T_{ice} \approx -20^\circ\text{C}$). With the chosen bed elevation, we consider the largest possible extent of the ice sheet 1000
139 km.

140 All steady-state configurations used in this study conform with the marine ice-sheet instability hypoth-
141 esis.

142 2.3 Model experiments

143 To examine the marine ice-sheet behavior in response to the time-varying accumulation rate and time-
144 varying basal conditions, we perform two sets of the time-variant experiments. The first scenario aims to
145 mimic the effect of changing climate conditions — atmospheric temperature and hence the surface mass
146 balance. The second scenario aims to mimic possible changes in basal conditions internal to the ice sheet,
147 caused by, for instance, subglacial processes.

148 2.3.1 Stochastically varying atmospheric conditions

149 This set of experiments aims to resemble the effects of changing climate conditions on the dynamics of
 150 marine ice sheets. This is done by varying SMB in time and with the distance along the ice sheet. The
 151 \dot{a} is determined by atmospheric conditions. If the atmospheric temperature is below the freezing point,
 152 snow mass accumulates on the surface; as the temperature approaches and exceeds the freezing point,
 153 mass is lost through ablation due to sublimation and melting. The atmospheric temperature decreases as
 154 elevation increases, and even under climate warming the higher elevations may experience net accumulation,
 155 whereas lower elevations may experience net ablation. Thus atmospheric temperature, which is controlled
 156 by the climate conditions, can be used as a proxy for the SMB. Here, we use an empirical relationship
 157 between \dot{a} and atmospheric temperature at the ice-sheet surface derived by *Sergienko* (2022b) who analyzed
 158 the results of regional climate model simulations for the Antarctic and Greenland ice sheets for projected
 159 climate conditions under a scenario in which emissions continue to rise throughout the 21st century (*IPCC*,
 160 2013).

161 This empirical expression relates \dot{a} to the atmospheric temperature at the ice-sheet surface T_S

$$\dot{a}(T_S)(x, t) = a_1 \exp \left[-\frac{(T_S(x, t) - T_0)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right] - a_2 \exp \left[-2\frac{T_S(x, t) - T_0}{T_0} \right], \quad (12)$$

162 where $a_1 = 2.4 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$, $a_2 = 0.8 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$, $T_0 = -15^\circ\text{C}$ and $\sigma = 6^\circ\text{C}$ are empirical parameters and $T_S(x, t)$ is
 163 temperature at the surface elevation S , which is

$$T_S(x, t) = T^{sl}(t) - \Gamma S(x, t), \quad (13)$$

164 where $\Gamma = 9.8 \text{ }^\circ\text{C km}^{-1}$ is the lapse rate, assumed adiabatic in this study, and $T^{sl}(t)$ is temperature at sea
 165 level.

166 A number of previous numerical studies investigating the response of grounding lines to variability
 167 in climate forcing using realistic (*Robel et al.*, 2019; *Hoffman et al.*, 2019) and idealized configurations
 168 (*Christian et al.*, 2022; *Felikson et al.*, 2022) have demonstrated that variability in the climate forcing causes
 169 the grounding line to behave differently from that resulting from time-invariant forcing. Ice-core records
 170 indicate that the climate of polar regions exhibits variability on a variety of temporal scales (*Jouzel et al.*,
 171 2007a,b; *Thomas et al.*, 2013), which range from hundreds of thousands of years governed by orbital cycles

172 (*Milanković*, 1941) to decades and years governed by variability in atmospheric and oceanic circulations
 173 such as the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) and El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (*Kim et al.*, 2020).
 174 These ice-core records are also characterized by noise at all temporal scales. To capture the observed
 175 variability, we choose to represent the temporal evolution of \hat{a} as a noise function of time with decadal and
 176 centennial correlation times, *i.e.*, we assume that $T^{sl}(t)$ varies with time according to

$$T_{sl}(t) = T_0^{sl} + T_{10}^{sl}N\left(\frac{t}{T_{10}}\right) + T_{100}^{sl}N\left(\frac{t}{T_{100}}\right), \quad (14)$$

177 where T_0^{sl} is a steady-state value of atmospheric temperature at sea level, which was used to compute
 178 steady-state configurations of the ice-sheet that are used as initial conditions for time-variant simulations;
 179 $T_{10}^{sl} = 1.25^\circ\text{C}$ is the amplitude of the decadal variability and $T_{100}^{sl} = 2.5^\circ\text{C}$ is the amplitude of the centennial
 180 variability, respectively; $N(t)$ is a noise function with a uniform distribution and zero mean value, $T_{10} = 10$
 181 yrs is the decadal and $T_{100} = 100$ yrs is the centennial correlation time-scale. The choice of these timescales
 182 and respective magnitudes are motivated by analyses of ice-core records (*e.g.*, *Kobashi et al.*, 2010; *Thomas*
 183 *et al.*, 2013). We restrict our model to decadal and centennial timescales because introducing longer,
 184 millennial scales would require simulations in excess of 100 kyr, that are run here. For all experiments we
 185 perform five simulations with different seeds in the noise functions, which results in thirty experiments in
 186 total.

187 2.3.2 Periodic variability of basal conditions

188 Our simulations with time-evolving basal conditions aim to capture the consequences of subglacial processes
 189 on the ice flow in the ice-sheet interior. Inferences of basal conditions beneath both Antarctic and Greenland
 190 ice sheets, made from radar observations (*Schroeder et al.*, 2013) and using inverse method techniques
 191 (*Sergienko et al.*, 2008; *Sergienko and Hindmarsh*, 2013; *Morlighem et al.*, 2013; *Sergienko et al.*, 2014)
 192 indicate that these conditions are highly heterogeneous and can vary by many orders of magnitudes. This
 193 variability is attributed to a wide range of processes operating on the wide range of time-scales – from the
 194 rapid flow of subglacial water (*Wingham et al.*, 2006) to the formation of subglacial landforms (*King et al.*,
 195 2007). In the absence of direct or indirect estimates of the characteristic time scales of such processes, we
 196 choose to investigate the effects of changing basal conditions by imposing periodic variability on the sliding
 197 parameter with periods ranging from 25 kyr to 400 yr. As we use the same model as used by (*Schoof*,
 198 2007a,b, 2012) the sliding law is in the form (4). While all other parameters remain constant, the sliding

199 parameter C evolves with time periodically:

$$C(x, t) = 10^\alpha C_0, \quad \alpha = k_t \frac{x_0 - x}{x_g} \sin \frac{2\pi t}{T}, \quad (15)$$

200 where C_0 is the steady-state value of the sliding parameter that was used to compute the corresponding
 201 steady-state configurations (we use the same value used by *Schoof* (2007a)); k_t is the amplitude of the order
 202 of magnitude variability, x_0 is a “catchment extent” that affects the grounding line downstream of it; T is
 203 the period of cyclic variability. We have chosen this model to include a variation in sliding as a function
 204 of position in addition to a variation in time. The values of k_t that we use are such that the value of C
 205 produced by eqn. (15) and the corresponding basal shear stress are within the range of values obtained
 206 for the present-day ice sheets using inversion techniques (*e.g.*, *Sergienko et al.*, 2008; *Morlighem et al.*,
 207 2013). In contrast to the experiments with time-evolving SMB, we do not consider stochastic variability
 208 due to lack of knowledge of any such characteristics. To focus on the effects of temporal variability in basal
 209 conditions we keep all other parameters constant in space and time and use $\dot{a} = 0.1 \text{ myr}^{-1}$.

210 The design of these experiments reflects the current state of the knowledge: much more is known about
 211 the temporal variability of atmospheric conditions than of basal conditions. Consequently, the first scenario
 212 is guided by the results of analyses of ice-core records (*e.g.*, *Kobashi et al.*, 2010; *Thomas et al.*, 2013).
 213 However, there are no direct observations of the temporal variability of basal conditions; consequently the
 214 second scenario is highly idealized. In both sets of experiments all other parameters remain constant in
 215 space and time.

216 2.3.3 Experiments with the steady-state grounding-line flux formula

217 Additionally, we perform experiments described above with a parameterization of the grounding-line stress
 218 condition which is based on the widely used expression of the steady-state ice flux at the grounding line
 219 obtained by *Schoof* (2007a). In a steady state $\dot{x}_g = 0$, and if the bed slope b_x and the accumulation rate
 220 \dot{a} at the grounding line can be neglected, the internal deformation at the grounding line and ice advection
 221 balance each other. For these circumstances, (*Schoof*, 2007a) formulated an approximate expression for
 222 the ice flux at the grounding line

$$q_{gS} = \left(\frac{A (\rho g)^{n+1} \delta^n}{4^n C} \right)^{\frac{1}{m+1}} h^{\frac{m+n+3}{m+1}}. \quad (16)$$

223 We repeat simulations with the time-variant accumulation rate and basal sliding using the ice-flux expres-
 224 sion (16) as a boundary condition. The ice velocity at the grounding line

$$u_g = \left(\frac{A (\rho g)^{n+1} \delta^n}{4^n C} \right)^{\frac{1}{m+1}} h^{\frac{n+2}{m+1}}. \quad x = x_g, \quad (17)$$

225 is used as a boundary condition instead of the stress condition (10). All other parameters and conditions
 226 are identical to numerical simulations described above. We compare q_{gS} to the ice flux q_g computed in
 227 simulations with the stress condition (10) at the grounding line, and which is given simply by

$$q_g = uH, \quad x = x_g. \quad (18)$$

228 2.4 Model analysis

229 In order to understand what governs the motion of its grounding line, we analyze the rate of the grounding
 230 line migration \dot{x}_g .

$$\dot{x}_g = \left(uh_x + u_x h - \dot{a} \right) / \left(h_x + \frac{b_x}{1 - \delta} \right). \quad (19)$$

231 For brevity, we denote the denominator $D = h_x + \frac{b_x}{1 - \delta}$. In this expression, the three terms of the nu-
 232 merator are all contributions to rate of change of height h_t at the grounding line, due respectively to the
 233 advection of ice from upstream, the internal deformation at the grounding line, and the accumulation at
 234 the grounding line; the denominator translates this rate to the corresponding horizontal velocity of the
 235 grounding line. The last two terms are determined by the local conditions at the grounding line. The
 236 accumulation term is determined solely by conditions at the grounding line, and, if the flow enters an
 237 unconfined ice shelf, this is true too of the ice deformation term, as in this case it is balanced by the
 238 pressure deficit. In contrast, the first term is determined by the ice flow along the length of the ice stream,
 239 and reflects the integrated effects of the accumulation, changes of the ice thickness and basal conditions of
 240 the grounded part of the marine ice sheet. This expression indicates that in a steady state ($\dot{x}_g = 0$) the
 241 accumulation, ice advection and internal deformation at the grounding line balance each other. Generally,
 242 however, the grounding line migrates due to imbalance of these terms.

243 We also analyze the integrated form of the grounded ice sheet mass balance (5), *i.e.*

$$\int_{x_d}^{x_g} dx [h_t + (uh)_x] = \int_{x_d}^{x_g} dx \dot{a}. \quad (20)$$

244 Taking into account the boundary conditions at the ice divide x_d and recognizing that $uh|_{x=x_g} = q(x_g)$,
 245 the above expression can be written as

$$q(x_g) = \int_{x_d}^{x_g} \dot{a}(x) dx - \int_{x_d}^{x_g} h_t(x) dx. \quad (21)$$

246 In our analysis we use the form (21) of the integrated mass balance of the grounded part of the ice sheet.

247 3 Results

248 3.1 Time-evolving SMB

249 In response to temporal variations in the accumulation, the simulated ice sheets exhibit diverse dynamic
 250 behaviors, which are illustrated in figure 2. In this figure, simulations that are initialized from positions
 251 on the prograde bed (illustrated by the green ice sheet in figure 1) are shown in the left-hand panels; those
 252 initialised on the retrograde bed (illustrated by the blue ice sheet in figure 1) are shown in the right-hand
 253 panels. The panels are arranged vertically according to their various “modes” of behaviour, which depend
 254 on the value of temperature at sea level T_0^{sl} in eqn. (14). Figures 2a and 2b illustrate retreats, in case a
 255 after a long duration of oscillatory behaviour of retreat and growth, in case b from retrograde positions to
 256 a prograde positions; figures 2c and 2d illustrate oscillatory behaviour; while figures 2e and 2f illustrate
 257 unstopped growth to the edge of the model domain. The duration of each of the plots is chosen to illustrate
 258 the character of their behaviour. In the cases shown in figures 2c and 2d, we extended the simulations to
 259 100 kyr (not shown) to confirm that the grounding line behaviour does not change on longer timescales
 260 than those shown in the figure.

261 In figure 2, the sea level temperatures T_0^{sl} that determine the initial steady states are given in the panels.
 262 There is no simple monotonic relationship between T_0^{sl} and the horizontal extent of the ice sheet. This is
 263 due to several factors that include the possibility of multiple steady-state configurations for the same set
 264 of parameters; the highly nonlinear dependence of the ice sheet thickness and the horizontal extent on \dot{a} ;
 265 and the highly non-linear dependence of \dot{a} on the surface temperature, which is a function of the ice-sheet

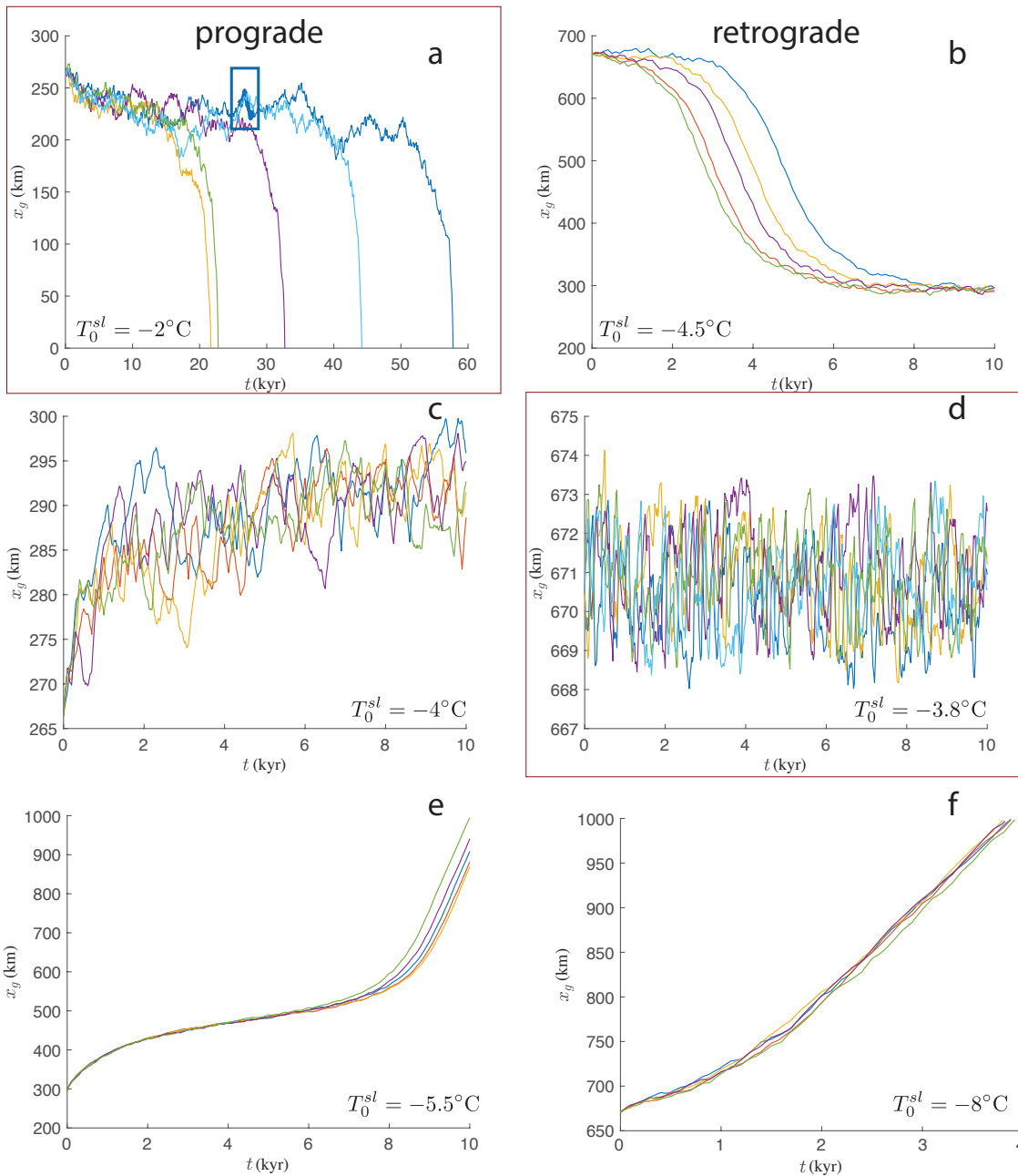


Fig. 2. Grounding-line response to variable accumulation. a-f grounding line positions $x_g(t)$. All simulations were initialized with respective steady-state configurations and were performed with the respective values of T_0^{sl} eqns. (12)-(13). Left panels correspond to the initial configurations with the grounding line positions on the prograde slope, right panels correspond to the initial configurations with the grounding line positions on the retrograde slope. Colours represent simulations with different seeds in the noise function. The blue rectangle in panel a marks the 2000 yr interval shown in figure 3. The red boxes outlining panels a and d indicate simulations that are repeated with the ice-flux parameterization and described in section 3.3.

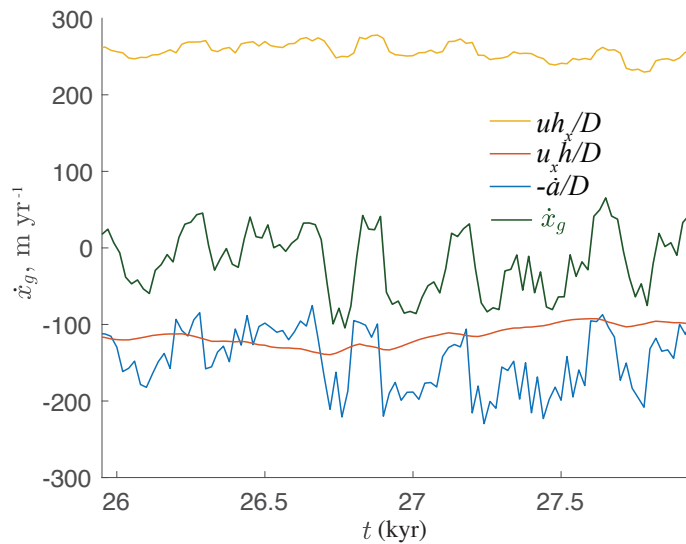


Fig. 3. The rate of the grounding line migration the terms of eqn. (19) for the simulation described by the dark blue line in figure 2a (the grounding line is on a prograde slope), during the 2000 year interval marked by the blue rectangle in the panel a. Here, $D = h_x + \frac{b_x}{1 - \delta}$.

266 surface elevation (eqns. (12) and (13)).

267 Among the behaviours shown in figure 2 are those in accordance with the MISI hypothesis. In figure
 268 2b the grounding lines move from their initial position on the retrograde bed-slope to stable positions on
 269 the prograde bed-slope; in figure 2c, the grounding lines oscillate around a stable position on the prograde
 270 bed-slope; and in case figure 2f the grounding lines continuously advance from its initial position on the
 271 retrograde bed-slope (instability allowing for unstopped advance as much as retreat). However, and equally,
 272 there are three counter cases. Figure 2a shows ultimate extinctions from initial positions on the prograde
 273 bed slope; figure 2d shows oscillations about stable locations on the retrograde bed-slope; and figure 2e
 274 shows upstopped advances from an initial position on the prograde bed slope.

275 To get insight into what governs the behavior of the grounding line, we analyze the rate of the grounding
 276 line migration \dot{x}_g for two thousand years of one simulation (the blue box in fig. 2a). As figure 3 illustrates,
 277 all the terms of the right-hand side of eqn. (19) have similar magnitudes. In addition to the immediate
 278 effect at the grounding line of the variability of the SMB (the term $-\dot{a}/D$), it appears in a more muted
 279 fashion in the ice advected from upstream (the term uh_x/D). The resulting rate of the grounding line
 280 migration (the dark green line) is the imbalance between all these effects. As a result, the magnitude of the
 281 rate of the grounding-line migration is substantially smaller than the magnitudes of any of the individual
 282 terms.

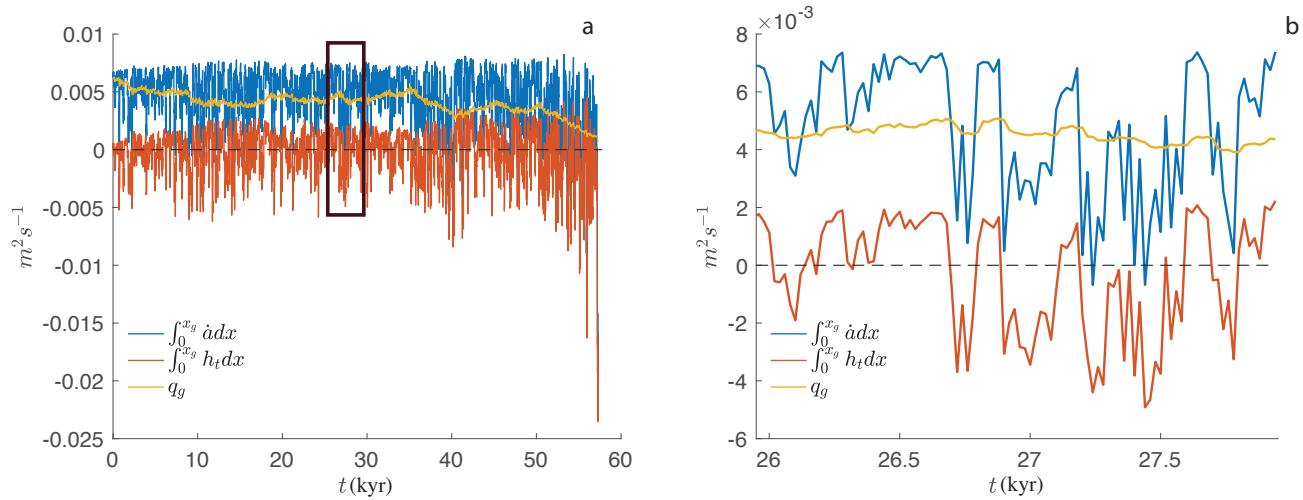


Fig. 4. Time series of various terms of the integrated mass balance (21). Panel a shows the terms for the dark blue line in figure 2a (the grounding line is on a prograde slope); panel b shows the terms during 2 kyr period outlined by the dark rectangle in panel a.

283 The net effect of the three terms in eqn. (19) has no simple connection to the local conditions at the
 284 grounding line. The sign of the rate of the grounding line migration \dot{x}_g , eqn (19), determines whether
 285 the grounding line advances (positive) or retreats (negative). In eqn (19), the ice-thickness gradient h_x
 286 as well as ice velocity u depend on the ice flux q at x_g , which in turn depends on the integrated \dot{a} and
 287 the rate of the ice-thickness change h_t throughout the extent of the ice sheet. As a result, the rate of the
 288 grounding line migration \dot{x}_g depends on the size of the ice sheet, that is, the grounding line position itself,
 289 in a complex, non-linear way.

290 In the example shown in figure 2a, while the grounding line remains on the prograde slope (fig. 1)
 291 throughout the course of the simulations, it also exhibits a long-term retreat, and, after some 20 to 60
 292 kyrs, depending on the simulation, the ice sheet vanishes. (A similar retreat from a prograde slope was
 293 observed in stochastic simulations with the presence of peaks in the bed topography (*Christian et al.*,
 294 2022)). One might suppose that the disappearance of the ice sheet results from a negative surface elevation
 295 feedback in which the lowering of the ice-sheet surface results in the increased surface ablation that leads
 296 to further surface lowering and eventual contraction of the ice sheet. This feedback has been used to
 297 explain ice-sheet collapse under steady-state climate conditions (*Garbe et al.*, 2020). However, a detailed
 298 examination of this simulation shows the collapse to be more complicated than a simple elevation-SMB
 299 feedback.

300 As figure 4 illustrates, there is no simple connection between the loss of the ice-sheet surface area

301 through which it gains mass and the disappearance of an ice sheet. For the simulations shown by the dark
302 blue line in figure 2a, the mass gain through the ice-sheet surface (blue line in fig. 4a) for the most part
303 exceeds the ice loss through the grounding line (orange line in fig. 4) throughout the ice-sheet lifetime. It
304 is only when ice advection towards the grounding line (orange line in fig. 3b) significantly reduces that the
305 ice sheet completely disappears. As figures 3 and 4b illustrate, in the 2 kyr period of the grounding line
306 advance and retreat (the green line in fig. 3 shows the rate of the grounding line migration) the ice flux
307 through the grounding line (the orange line in fig. 4b) does not change greatly, however, the integrated
308 mass gain (the blue line in fig. 4b) experiences significant variations in its magnitude and also sign. It
309 is the rate of the ice-thickness change that balances these variations in the integrated mass gain (the red
310 line in fig. 4b). All three terms of the integrated mass balance have similar magnitudes and are equally
311 important in determining both the instantaneous and long-term ice-sheet mass balance.

312 The behaviour of the grounding lines in other cases shown in figure 2 can be understood using the same
313 analysis described above for the case of figure 2a. Ultimately, it is the imbalance between the advection
314 of ice from upstream, the internal deformation and the accumulation at the grounding line, together with
315 the geometric conditions at the grounding line, such as the bed slope and the ice-thickness gradient that
316 determines whether the grounding line advances or retreats and at what rate.

317 **3.2 Time-evolving basal conditions**

318 Depending on the choice of parameters that determine temporal variability of basal sliding, eqn. (15), with
319 all other parameters remained constant at their steady-state values, the ice sheets and their grounding lines
320 exhibit a wide variety of behaviors including oscillation, retreat and advance. For example, we illustrate
321 in figure 5 evolutions with a 25 kyr period of variability in the sliding parameter. In figures 5a and b, the
322 grounding line oscillates between limiting positions on the prograde and retrograde slopes with the same
323 period regardless of the initial steady-state configuration. (Simulations (not shown) were run for 2 Myr to
324 confirm the oscillatory behavior.) The bed slope alone is insufficient to explain this oscillatory behavior.
325 While the grounding line indeed retreats from the retrograde slope, it continues to retreat on the prograde
326 slope until it reaches its limiting position, and then re-advances far into the parts of the bed with retrograde
327 slopes (Supplementary Information, Movie 1).

328 The grounding line behavior during one cycle (marked by the thick blue line in figure 5b) is the
329 following. After advancing to its most downstream position, the grounding line rapidly retreats, and then

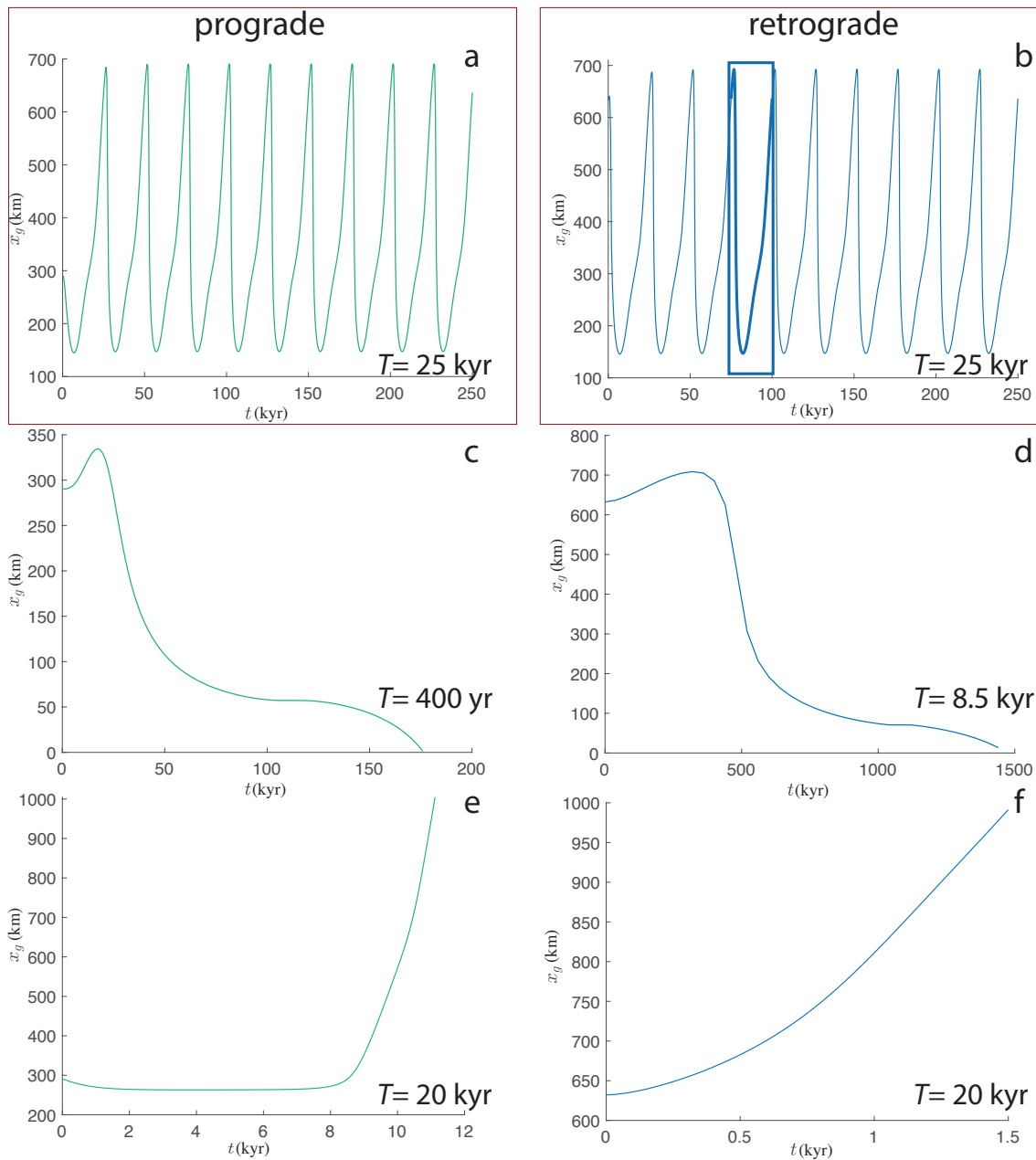


Fig. 5. Grounding-line response to time-variable sliding coefficients. a-f the grounding-line position $x_g(t)$. All simulations were initialized with respective steady-state configurations and performed with the following parameters in (15) panels a-b $k_t = 2.8$; $x_0 = 0.6x_g$, $T = 25$ kyr; panel c $k_t = 9$; $x_0 = 0.3x_g$, $T = 400$ yr; panel d $k_t = 6$; $x_0 = 0.59x_g$, $T = 8.5$ kyr; panel e $k_t = -4$, $x_0 = 0.2x_g$, $T = 20$ kyr; panel f $k_t = 3$, $x_0 = 0.3x_g$, $T = 20$ kyr; in all simulations $C_0 = 7.6 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa m}^{-1/3} \text{ s}^{1/3}$, $\dot{a} = 0.1 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$. The blue rectangle in panel b marks the 25 kyr interval shown in figure 6. The red boxes outlining panels a and b indicate simulations that are repeated with the ice-flux parameterization and described in section 3.3.

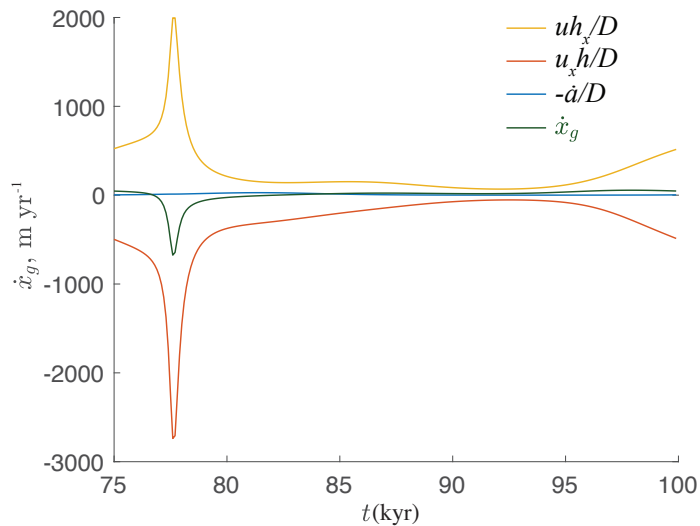


Fig. 6. The individual terms contributing to the rate of the grounding line migration in eqn. (19) for the simulation described by the thick blue line in figure 5b (the grounding line oscillates between retrograde and prograde parts of the bed). Here, $D = h_x + \frac{b_x}{1 - \delta}$.

330 slowly re-advances from its most upstream position. The two phases – retreat and advance – are not
 331 symmetric. The rate of the grounding line retreat (fig. 6, the green line) reaches its maximum magnitude
 332 $\sim 690 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$, and then slows down until it reaches its limiting upstream position. The magnitude of the
 333 rate of the grounding line advance is an order of magnitude smaller than the magnitude of its retreat
 334 rate; its maximum $\sim 70 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$. The term $-\dot{a}/D$ is substantially smaller than the other two terms in eqn
 335 (19). Consequently, the behavior of the grounding line (its advance and retreat) is primarily controlled
 336 by ice advection, deformation and changes in the ice thickness gradient caused by changes in the sliding
 337 conditions. The temporal evolution of the basal friction is such that the retreat from the most downstream
 338 position coincides with low basal shear near the grounding line, and the re-advance of the grounding line
 339 from its most upstream position coincides with the increase of the basal shear. Simulations with shorter
 340 periods and slightly different values of other parameters in eqn. (15) result in an unstopped retreat of the
 341 grounding lines starting from steady-state configurations on the prograde and retrograde parts of the bed
 342 (figs. 5c-d). As figures 5e-f illustrate, the grounding lines can advance in an unstopped manner from the
 343 prograde and retrograde steady-state positions.

344 In circumstances where \dot{a} is constant, but the sliding properties vary in time, the temporal variability
 345 of the ice flux through the grounding line and the rate of the ice-thickness change integrated through the
 346 length of the ice sheet mimic each other (fig. 7). Irrespective of the long-term behavior (*i.e.*, either the

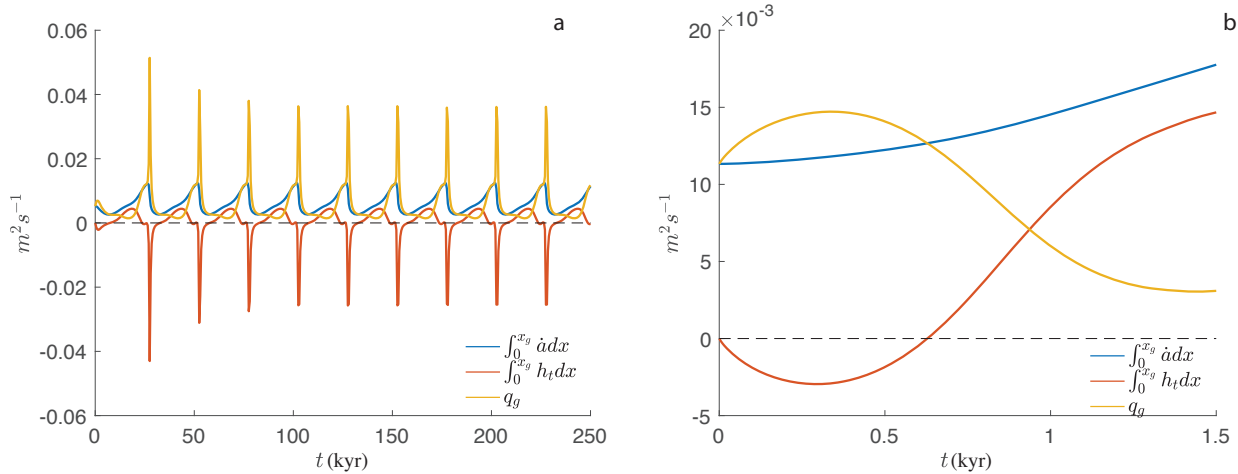


Fig. 7. Time series of various terms of the integrated mass balance (21) for the simulations shown in figure 5a (the grounding line oscillates between retrograde and prograde parts of the bed) and figure 5f (the grounding line advances in unstoppable manner).

347 grounding line exhibits regular oscillations shown in figures 5a or b or unstoppable advance figure 5f), the
 348 terms of the integrated mass balance have similar magnitudes figures 7a and figures 7b, respectively. The
 349 instantaneous balance of these terms is not informative about the long-term behavior of the ice sheet.

350 3.3 Grounding line behavior with the ice-flux parameterization

351 Under the assumptions of negligible bed slope b_x and the SMB \dot{a} at the grounding line, *Schoof* (2007a)
 352 derived an expression for the ice-flux (16) for the steady-state conditions. Due to its simplicity, it has
 353 been widely used in various applications in place of the exact description of the longitudinal stress at the
 354 grounding line. As we have noted, this expression equates the ice advection and ice deformation at the
 355 grounding line. However, it is the imbalance of these terms that contributes to the motion of the grounding
 356 line in (19), and it is not apparent to us that eqn. (16) is suitable in the time-variant case.

357 Previous studies (*Gudmundsson*, 2013; *Reese et al.*, 2018) have demonstrated that this parameterization
 358 is not suitable for marine ice sheets whose ice shelves are laterally confined and experience buttressing.
 359 Here, we consider a configuration with unbuttressed ice shelves, for which expression (16) was derived. To
 360 assess its performance, we undertake simulations with the same time-variant SMB and basal sliding that
 361 resulted in the grounding line behavior shown in respectively figures 2a and d and 5a and b. The results of
 362 these simulations are shown in figure 8. In general, we find that eqn. (16) results in dynamic evolutions that
 363 are markedly different in kind to those performed with the exact boundary condition for the longitudinal

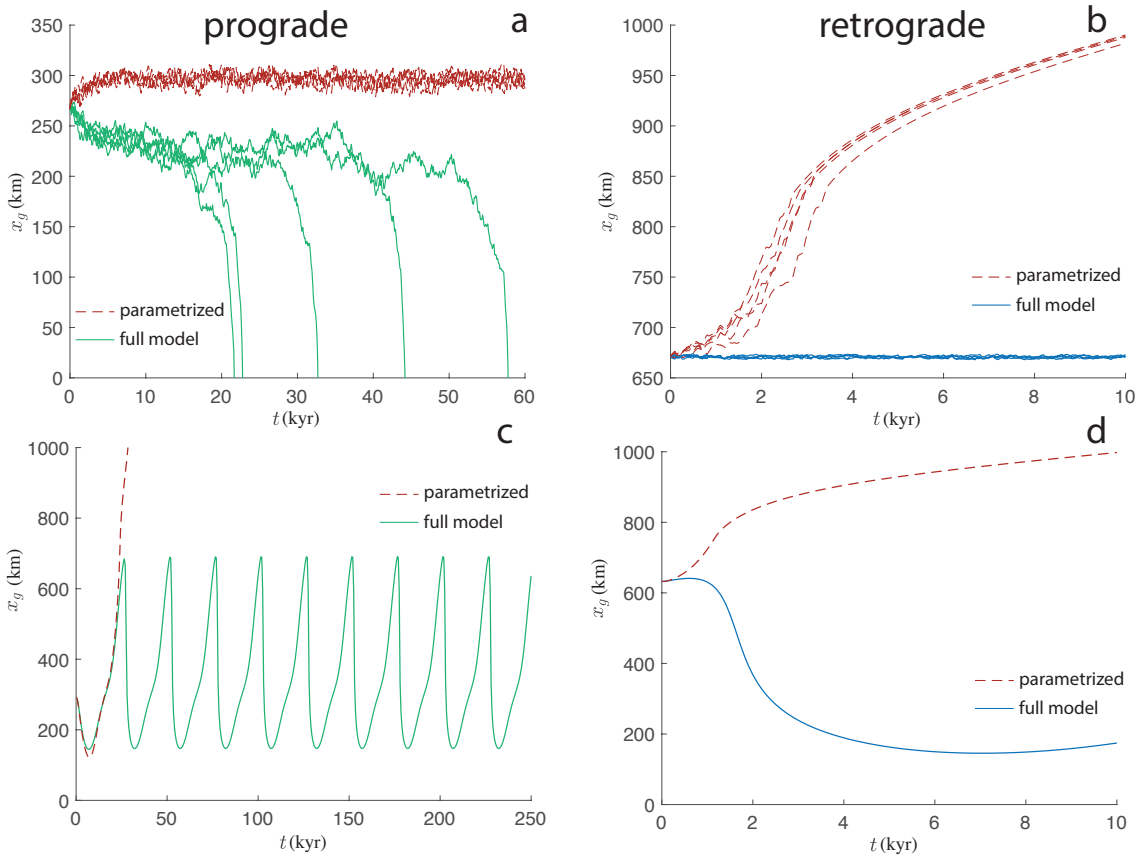


Fig. 8. The effects of the ice-flux parameterization on the grounding line migration. a and b: simulations with a time-variant surface mass balance; c and d: simulations with a time-variant sliding parameter. The red lines are simulations using eqn.(16); the green and blue lines are simulations with the exact treatment of the longitudinal stress at the grounding line (the lines are the same as in figures 2a and d (marked by the red rectangles) and in figures 5a and b). Simulations using eqn.(16) are truncated at the point when the ice sheet reaches the edge of the domain at 1000 km.

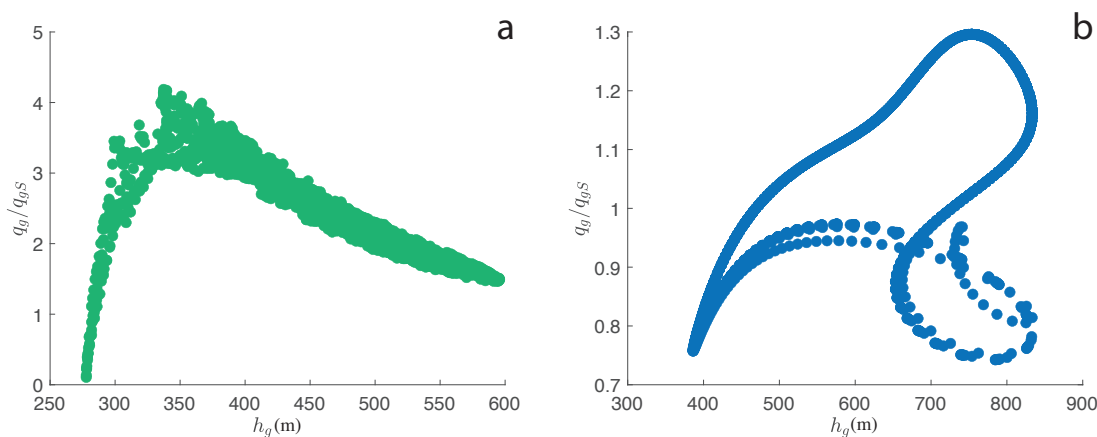


Fig. 9. Performance of ice-flux parameterization: the ratio of the ice flux computed in time-variant simulations with the exact treatment of the longitudinal stress at the grounding line to the ice flux computed with eqn. (16), *vs.* ice thickness. a the case shown in figure 2a (the grounding line oscillates between retrograde and prograde parts of the bed due to time-variant surface mass balance); b the case shown in figure 5b (the grounding line oscillates between retrograde and prograde parts of the bed due to time variant basal sliding).

364 stress at the grounding line. For example, in the simulations with time-variant SMB, which are shown
 365 in figure 8a and b, the use of eqn. (16) (the red, dashed lines) replace either an irreversible retreat on
 366 the prograde slope with oscillatory behavior (fig. 8a), or replaces on the retrograde slope an oscillating
 367 grounding line behavior with an unstoppable advance (fig. 8b). In simulations with the time-variant basal
 368 sliding, which are shown in figure 8c and d, an unstopped advances replace oscillatory behavior.

369 These markedly different evolutions arise because whereas the longitudinal stress condition relates the
 370 velocity gradient to the thickness at the grounding line, eqn. (16) insists that it is the ice flux that is
 371 determined solely by the thickness at the grounding line (*i.e.*, no other characteristics such as the bed
 372 slope or the rate of the ice-thickness change affect it). To illustrate the difference that occurs in the
 373 grounding line flux, we compare the ice flux at the grounding line obtained with the exact treatment of the
 374 longitudinal stress, eqn. (18), to that computed with eqn. (16). As figure 9 illustrates, these two fluxes are
 375 substantially different. In the case of the time-variant SMB (fig. 9a), which corresponds to the grounding
 376 line exhibiting an unstopped retreat on the prograde slope (fig. 2a), the ice flux computed with eqn. (16)
 377 both under- and over-estimates the simulated flux by factors ranging from four to more than ten. This is
 378 a result of the expression equating the ice advection and ice deformation at the grounding line. During
 379 the interval of grounding line retreat in our simulations of figure 2a, the SMB at the grounding line, and
 380 as a consequence the rate of the ice thickness change, experience a broad range of values and cannot be
 381 neglected if one is to form a time-variant expression for the ice-flux at the grounding line (*Sergienko and*

382 Wingham, 2022). In the case of a time-variant sliding parameter, eqn. (16) under- and over-estimates the
383 ice flux by some 30% (fig. 9b). The discrepancy between the two fluxes is due to the contributions of
384 the rate of the ice thickness change to the time-variant ice flux at the grounding line, and its dependence
385 on the the bed slope, whose effects become more pronounced for smaller values of the sliding parameter
386 (Sergienko and Wingham, 2022, 2019).

387 4 Conclusions

388 Our results show that, once temporal variability of the external or internal conditions is accounted for, the
389 same model (Schoof, 2007a,b, 2012) that exhibits under constant conditions the irreversible retreat of the
390 MISI hypothesis exhibits a diverse range of the grounding line behavior – an unstoppable advance or retreat
391 or irregular limited advance and retreat – regardless of the stability of a steady state configuration achieved
392 with constant conditions. Such behavior cannot be explained by a simple model of ice sheet instability.
393 This is because grounding line migration is generally determined by the interplay between processes both
394 at the grounding line and throughout the interior of the ice sheet, in addition to the geometric properties
395 of the bed at the grounding line.

396 The model we employ is a very simple description of the ice dynamics: it lacks any description of lateral
397 variability or lateral shear in either the sheet or the shelf, either of which may impact the dynamic behaviour
398 (e.g., Sergienko, 2012; Gudmundsson, 2013; Schoof et al., 2017; Haseloff and Sergienko, 2018; Sergienko,
399 2022a). Equally, it is the same model employed by Schoof (2007a,b, 2012) to demonstrate instability
400 in small perturbations from the steady state, and from which instability in more complex situations has
401 been inferred. The models we use to capture the effects of time-variant SMB and time-variant basal
402 conditions within the context of this simple model are asymmetric in their complexity, which is a reflection
403 of our relative understanding of these processes. SMB is strongly dependent on temperature and contains
404 considerable stochastic variability, and we have accommodated these effects within our model. Very little
405 is known of the centennial to millennial variation in basal shear stress. We do not claim any particular
406 virtue for our particular choice, beyond that it allows us to show the consequences on grounding line
407 migration that can emerge when the bed stress is time-variant. The detailed behaviours of the grounding
408 line is sensitive to the choice of model parameters, particularly the sea level temperature, but the variety
409 of behaviours we illustrate is a common feature of the model. They reflect the variety of grounding line
410 behaviour in the generally time-variant situation.

411 As the results of simulations with the time-variant SMB show, even if the grounding line migration is
412 caused by only stochastic variability in the climate conditions (here encapsulated in the variability of the
413 SMB), this interplay can give rise to long-term trends in grounding-line behavior. Conversely, changes in the
414 external conditions need not cause an immediate response of the grounding line, because other processes
415 (deformation and sliding) also control its dynamics. These examples also illustrate that grounding-line
416 migration depends on the history of changing environmental conditions, even if these changes are random
417 in time. Consequently, the short-term grounding-line behavior (*e.g.*, over several decades) may not indicate
418 a response to the immediate environmental conditions; equally, it need not indicate a long-term behavior
419 of the ice sheet and a grounding line. These results have direct implications for the interpretation of the
420 behavior of the present-day ice sheets. The ice-sheet wide observations spanning the satellite era, which
421 are a few decades long (*Shepherd et al.*, 2018b), may be too short to make conclusive statements about the
422 long-term behavior of their marine parts.

423 The results of simulations with the time-variant basal sliding illustrate that the grounding line can
424 respond to changes in the basal conditions in the interior of ice sheets far away from the grounding line.
425 Previous conceptual studies used similar mechanisms – changes in ice-sheet basal conditions – to explain
426 the long-time variability of West Antarctic Ice Sheet (*MacAyeal*, 1992a, 1993). Although inferences about
427 the spatial variability of the present-day basal conditions from surface observations have been performed
428 routinely (*MacAyeal*, 1992b; *Joughin et al.*, 2004; *Sergienko et al.*, 2008; *Brinkerhoff et al.*, 2021), nothing
429 is known about their long-term temporal evolution. Current modeling projections of the future behavior
430 of the present-day ice sheets are based on the assumption that basal conditions remain constant in time
431 (*Cornford et al.*, 2015; *Seroussi et al.*, 2020). However, the results presented here illustrate that long-term
432 changes in the basal conditions might cause an increase in the short-term (decadal, for example) grounding-
433 line migration rate that is an order of magnitude larger than the longer-term average. Thus, there is an
434 urgent need to find ways to determine the temporal evolution of basal conditions in order to make reliable
435 projections of the ice-sheet behavior in changing environmental conditions.

436 Our analysis of the integrated mass balance demonstrates that in time-variant conditions all its terms
437 may have similar magnitudes and play an equal role in determining the behavior of the marine ice sheet. In
438 circumstances where the surface accumulation varies in time, grounding line retreat does not always lead
439 to the reduction in the mass gain that happens under steady-state conditions. Additionally, in time-variant
440 conditions, the rate of the ice-thickness change integrated through the horizontal extent of the ice sheet,

441 which is zero in steady-state conditions, plays significant role in the integrated ice-sheet mass balance.

442 We have also examined in the time-variant setting the use of the boundary condition due to Schoof
443 (2007a), which equates the ice advection with the ice deformation at the grounding line. This is a reasonable
444 approximation in the steady state (Sergienko and Wingham, 2022). However, in the general, time-variant
445 case, the grounding line motion depends on small differences between the effects of advection and deforma-
446 tion. The ice flux computed in the time-variant simulations with the exact treatment of the longitudinal
447 stress at the grounding line is substantially different from that obtained with this parameterization of the
448 grounding line ice flux in terms of the ice thickness. With an increasing number of climate models that use
449 the large-scale ice-sheet models (Sadai et al., 2020; Pelletier et al., 2022; Park et al., 2023) it is necessary
450 to recognize limitations of this ice-flux parameterization on the simulated behavior of marine ice sheets. In
451 the time-variant case, the longitudinal stress at the grounding line requires a careful treatment.

452 Taking together, our results indicate that arguments and expressions developed for ice sheets in steady
453 states are limited only to steady-state conditions. Studies of ice sheets experiencing temporally variable
454 conditions require new, dedicated approaches.

455 Code availability

456 Results and numerical models used in this study are available in the Zenodo database [https://zenodo.](https://zenodo.org/record/7765126)
457 [org/record/7765126](https://zenodo.org/record/7765126) (Sergienko and Wingham, 2024).

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